Construction of EPr Generalized Inverses by Inversion of Nonsingular Matrices*

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Any matrix B such that ABA = A is called a C_1 -inverse of A and a C_1 -inverse of A such that BAB = B is called a C_2 -inverse of A. Some properties of such inverses are established. It is shown that if A is p-square of rank q < p and P is any positive semidefinite matrix, whose rank is the nullity of A, such that U = A + P is nonsingular, then $B = U^{-1}AU^{-1}$ is a C_2 -inverse of A with the property that null space B = null space B^* . That such a P exists for arbitrary square A is shown. The relation between this result and the work of Goldman and Zelen is discussed.

Key Words: EPr matrices, generalized inverse, matrix.

1. Introduction

Goldman and Zelen [1] have shown how to construct a generalized inverse (of a kind made precise in what follows) of a real symmetric matrix A by inversion of a nonsingular matrix formed from A. It is inherent in the assumption that A is symmetric that the resulting generalized inverse is also symmetric.

We show that if a complex matrix A and its conjugate transpose have the same null space (i.e., A is an EPr matrix [3]) then there always exists a generalized inverse of the kind discussed which is also an EPr matrix. It is then shown that the construction given by Goldman and Zelen [1] goes through, essentially step for step, when the condition that A be real symmetric is replaced by the condition that A be an EPr matrix, and that the resulting generalized inverse is an EPr matrix.

It is further shown that with no restrictions on A the Goldman-Zelen procedure produces a generalized inverse which is EPr, although in this case the details of the construction are somewhat different. The (rather surprising) implication is that an arbitrary square complex matrix always possesses a generalized inverse, of the type discussed, which is an EPr matrix. In any given case a generalized inverse of this character can be obtained in principle by the Zelen-Goldman procedure, i.e., by inverting a certain nonsingular matrix and selecting from it a specified submatrix.

2. Some Properties of Generalized Inverses

All matrices considered have complex entries. We use the symbols $\rho(V)$, N(V), R(V), and V^* to de-

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¹ Figures in brackets indicate the literature references at the end of this paper.

note the rank, null space, range and conjugate transpose of the matrix V. When V is square, |V| denotes the determinant of V. For two subspaces S_1 and S_2 , $S_1 \cdot S_2$ is the intersection of S_1 and S_2 ; $S_1 \leq S_2$ denotes that S_1 is a subspace of S_2 ; the dimension of S_1 is written dim S_1 . The symbol I denotes an identity matrix of whatever order is appropriate in the context.

For a given arbitrary matrix A we define by $C_1(A)$ the set of all matrices B such that ABA = A. We call any matrix in $C_1(A)$ a C_1 -inverse of A. We define by $C_2(A)$ the set of all matrices B such that $B \in C_1(A)$ and BAB = B. Thus $B \in C_2(A)$ if and only if $B \in C_1(A)$ and $A \in C_1(B)$; and $B \in C_2(A)$ if and only if $A \in C_2(B)$. We call any matrix in $C_2(A)$ a C_2 -inverse of A. C_1 -inverses and C_2 -inverses have been termed by Rohde [4] generalized inverses and reflexive generalized inverses respectively. We begin with several lemmas regarding these kinds of generalized inverses.

The first lemma, which we state for ready reference, is due to Rohde [4].

LEMMA 1. If A is any matrix and B is a C_1 -inverse of A then $\rho(B) \ge \rho(A) = \rho(AB) = \rho(BA)$.

The next lemma was first proved by Rohde [4]. We here give a shortened proof of a quite different character.

LEMMA 2. Let A be any matrix and B any C_1 -inverse of A. Then B is a C_2 -inverse of A if and only if $\rho(B) = \rho(A)$.

PROOF. Assume $B \in C_2(A)$ then since $B \in C_1(A)$ we have, by Lemma 1, $\rho(B) \ge \rho(A)$; and since also $A \in C_1(B)$ we have, by Lemma 1, $\rho(B) \le \rho(A)$. Thus $\rho(A) = \rho(B)$. Conversely, assume $B \in C_1(A)$ and $\rho(B) = \rho(A) = r$. From ABA = A the matrix AB is idempotent and by Lemma 1, $\rho(AB) = r$. There are then linearly independent vectors $x_i, 1 \le i \le r$, such that $ABx_i = x_i$. If there are n columns in B and $y_i, 1 \le i \le n - r$, are any basis of N(B) = N(AB) then $ABy_i = 0$. We then have $BABx_i = Bx_i$ and $BABy_i$

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 $=By_i$, from which it follows 2 that BAB=B and that $B \in C_2(A)$.

Lemma 3. Let P be an $n \times m$ matrix, Q and R be $m \times n$ matrices. If PQ is idempotent, $\rho(PQ) = \rho(Q)$ and N(R) = N(Q), then RPQ = R.

PROOF. If PQ is idempotent and $\rho(PQ) = \rho(Q) = r$, then as in the proof of Lemma 1, we have x_i , $1 \le i \le r$, and y_i , $1 \le i \le n-r$, linearly independent and such that $PQx_i = x_i$, $PQy_i = 0$ and $y_i \in N(Q)$. If N(R) = N(Q) then $RPQx_i = Rx_i$ and $RPQy_i = Ry_i$ from which the conclusion follows.

It has been seen that if $B \in C_1(A)$ then BA is idempotent and has the rank of A. The following corollary of Lemma 3 shows the converse of this to be true.

COROLLARY 1. The matrix B is a C_1 -inverse of A if and only if BA is idempotent and $\rho(BA) = \rho(A)$; and if and only if AB is idempotent and $\rho(AB) = \rho(A)$.

PROOF. If $B \in C_1(A)$ then from ABA = A, AB, and BA are idempotent and that they have the rank of A is given by Lemma 1. Conversely, assume BA idempotent, $\rho(BA) = \rho(A)$, and in Lemma 3 take P = B, R = Q = A. Then ABA = A and $B \in C_1(A)$. If AB is idempotent and $\rho(AB) = \rho(A)$ then $\rho(B^*A^*) = \rho(A^*)$ and B^*A^* is idempotent. By Lemma 3 (with $P = B^*$, $R = Q = A^*$) we have $A^*B^*A^* = A^* \Rightarrow ABA = A \Rightarrow B \in C_1(A)$.

The following corollary of Lemma 3 gives a relation between an EPr matrix and a C_1 -inverse of that

matrix.

COROLLARY 2. $A^* = A^*BA$ if and only if B is a C_1 -inverse of A and $N(A) = N(A^*)$. Further, $A^* = ABA^*$ if and only if $A^* = A^*BA$.

PROOF. If $B \in C_1(A)$ then BA is idempotent and has the rank of A. If further $N(A) = N(A^*)$, then Lemma 3 (with P = B, Q = A, $R = A^*$) gives $A^*BA = A^*$. Conversely, if $A^*BA = A^*$ then $N(A) \le N(A^*)$, and hence $N(A) = N(A^*)$, and this being so $A^*BA = A^* \Rightarrow A^*(I - BA) = 0 \Rightarrow A(I - BA) = 0 \Rightarrow B \in C_1(A)$. That $B \in C_1(A)$ and $N(A) = N(A^*)$ are necessary and sufficient for $A^* = ABA^*$ is proved in the same way.

REMARK: Corollary 2 can in fact be proved without recourse to Lemma 3. The "if part" follows at once from the fact [3] that $N(A^*) = N(A^*)$ if and only if $R(A) = R(A^*)$.

The next lemma shows that C_2 -inverses can be constructed from C_1 -inverses.

LEMMA 4. Let B_1 and B_2 be any two (not necessarily distinct) C_1 -inverses of A. Then $B=B_1AB_2$ is a C_2 -inverse of A.

PROOF. Given that B_1 and B_2 are in $C_1(A)$ we have $ABA = (AB_1A)B_2A = AB_2A = A$, or that $B \in C_1(A)$. By Lemma 1, $\rho(B) \ge \rho(A)$, but $\rho(B) \le \rho(B_1A) = \rho(A)$ also follows from Lemma 1 and $B_1 \in C_1(A)$. Thus we have $B \in C_1(A)$ and $\rho(B) = \rho(A)$, and Lemma 2 gives the conclusion $B \in C_2(A)$.

A C_i -inverse, i = 1, 2, of a hermitian matrix is not necessarily hermitian but that a hermitian matrix always possesses at least one hermitian C_i -inverse is

known 3 [4]. We observe that the existence of a hermitian C_1 -inverse of a hermitian matrix insures, by Lemma 4, the existence of hermitian C_2 -inverse. For if $B_1 = B_1 * \epsilon C_1(A)$ then $B = B_1 A B_1 \epsilon C_2(A)$ and is hermitian whenever A is hermitian. There is in fact a considerable list of properties such that by using Lemma 4 we can assert: If there exists a C_1 -inverse with one of the properties then there exists a C_2 -inverse with that property.

The next lemma shows that every EPr matrix pos-

sesses a C_2 -inverse which is an EPr matrix.

Lemma 5. Let A be a matrix with the property $N(A) = N(A^*)$. Then there exist matrices B such that $B \in C_2(A)$ and $N(B) = N(B^*)$. In fact $B = B_1A^*B_1^*$, where

 B_1 is any C_2 -inverse of A, is such a matrix.

PROOF. If $N(A) = N(A^*)$ and $B_1 \in C_2(A)$ then by Corollary 2, we have $A^*B_1A = A^*$ and $A^*B_1^*A = A$. Let $B = B_1A^*B_1^*$, then $ABA = AB_1(A^*B_1^*A) = AB_1A = A$. Thus $B \in C_1(A)$. By Lemma 1, $\rho(B) \ge \rho(A)$. On the other hand $\rho(B) \le \rho(A^*B_1^*) = \rho(A)$ follows from Lemma 1 and the construction of B. Hence by Lemma 2, $B \in C_2(A)$. Clearly $N(B_1^*) \le N(B)$ and $N(B_1^*) \le N(B^*)$. But $\rho(B_1) = \rho(B)$, for we have just proved $\rho(A) = \rho(B)$ and $\rho(A) = \rho(B_1)$ follows from Lemma 2. Hence $N(B) = N(B^*)$.

3. C_2 -inverses by Inversion of a Nonsingular Matrix

Let A be a $p \times p$ matrix, $\rho(A) = q$, K be a $p \times r$ matrix and define the matrices M and U as follows:

$$M = \begin{bmatrix} A & K \\ K^* & 0 \end{bmatrix} \tag{1}$$

$$U = A + KK^*. (2)$$

We further denote by S and S^* the subspaces $S = N(A) \cdot N(K^*)$ and $S^* = N(A^*) \cdot N(K^*)$. We then prove the following theorem.

Theorem 1. Let M and U be as in (1) and (2). If r=p-q then any one of the following statements implies the other two: (i) S=0 and $S^*=0$, (ii) M^{-1} exists. (iii) U^{-1} exists.

PROOF. (i) \Leftrightarrow (ii). It has been shown [2] that $S^*=0$ is equivalent to the existence of a matrix H such that $H^*A=0$ and $|H^*K|\neq 0$. Assume (i) and let $z^T=(x^T,y^T)$ be a suitably partitioned vector such that $z\in N(M)$. Then Ax+Ky=0 and $K^*x=0$. The first of these two equalities shows $H^*Ky=0\Rightarrow y=0$. Given y=0 we are left with Ax=0 and $K^*x=0$ so that $x\in S$ and hence x=0. Thus (i) \Rightarrow (ii). It has been shown [2] that $S\neq 0$ $\Rightarrow |M|=0$ and this same argument shows that $S^*\neq 0$ $\Rightarrow |M^*|=0$. We then have $S=0 \Leftrightarrow |M|\neq 0 \Leftrightarrow |M^*|\neq 0 \Rightarrow S^*=0$. Hence (ii) \Rightarrow (i).

(i) \Leftrightarrow (iii). Assume (i). Let $x \in N(U)$, then $Ax + KK^*x = 0$. There is an H such that $H^*Ax + H^*KK^*x = H^*KK^*x = 0 \Rightarrow K^*x = 0$. But then $x \in S$ and x = 0. Thus (i) \Rightarrow (iii).

 $[\]overline{}^2$ We observe that the $x_i,\ 1 \le i \le r$, and $y_i,\ 1 \le i \le n-r$ are a complete set of engenvectors of the projection E=AB and are thus linearly independent. For proof, let $z=\sum \alpha_i x_i + \sum \beta_j y_j$. Then $Ez=\sum \alpha_i x_i$. If z=0, then $\alpha_i=0$, and given this, $z=\sum \beta_j y_j=0$, and $\beta_j=0$.

 $^{^3}$ The argument in [4], and in Lemma 5 to follow, assumes the existence of a C_1 -inverse. The existence of a C_1 -inverse for an arbitrary matrix A was given constructive proof by Bose in 1959 and is given in [5] in detail.

Now assume (i) false. If (i) is false due to $S \neq 0$ then |U| = 0, since any $x \in S$ is in N(U): if (i) is false due to $S^* \neq 0$ then $|U^*| = 0$, since any $x \in S^*$ is in $N(U^*)$. Thus (iii)

Whenever M^{-1} exists 4 we partition this matrix in the same manner as M and write

$$M^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} B & B_{12} \\ B_{21} & B_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (3)

Regarding the relation of the blocks in M to those in

 M^{-1} we have the following theorem.

Theorem 2. Let M be as in (1). Assume M⁻¹ to exist and be as in (3). Then, (i) $A \in C_1(B)$, (ii) $N(B) = N(B^*)$, (iii) B is a C_2 -inverse of A if and only if r = p - q, (iv) $B_{21} \epsilon C_2(K)$, (v) $B_{12} \epsilon C_2(K^*)$, (vi) if r = p - q, $B_2 = 0$, (vii) if r = p - q and $N(A) = N(A^*)$ then $B_{12}^* = B_{21}$.

PROOF. It is known [2] that if M^{-1} exists then $\rho(K)$ =r and $r \ge p-q$. Assuming M^{-1} exists we obtain

from $MM^{-1} = I$ and $M^{-1}M = I$

$$AB + KB_{21} = I \tag{4}$$

$$K*B = 0 (5$$

$$BA + B_{12}K^* = I \tag{6}$$

$$AB_{12} + KB_2 = 0. (7)$$

From (4) and (5) we have at once B*AB=B* and (i) and (ii) follow from Corollary 2. Given (ii), (5) implies BK = 0 and this with (4) gives $KB_{21}K = K$. Thus $B_{21} \in C_1(K)$ and, by Lemma 1, $\rho(KB_{21}) = \rho(K) = r$. Since KB_{21} is idempotent of rank r we now have from (4) that $AB = I - KB_{21}$ is idempotent of rank p - r. But $\rho(AB) = \rho(B) = p - r$ follows from (i) and Lemma 1. Thus by Lemma 2, $A \in C_2(B)$ and hence $B \in C_2(A)$ if and only if $\rho(A) = q = \rho(B) = p - r$, and (iii) is proved. We have just seen that $B_{21} \in C_1(K)$. Hence, by Lemma 1, $\rho(B_{21}) \geqslant \rho(K) = r$, but B_{21} has r rows and thus $\rho(B_{21})$ = r and (iv) follows from Lemma 2. From (5) and (6), $K^*B_{12}K^*=K^*$ and $B_{12}\epsilon C_1(K^*)$ implying, by Lemma 1, $\rho(B_{12}) \geqslant \rho(K) = r$. But B_{12} has r columns, thus $\rho(B_{12}) = r$ and (v) follows from Lemma 2. If r = p - q, then by Theorem 1, $S^*=0$ and [2] there exists an H such that $H^*A = 0$, $|H^*K| \neq 0$. This being so, (7) gives $H*KB_2 = 0$ and (vi) is proved. If r = p - q then from (4), $H^*KB_{21} = H^*$ gives $B_{21} = (H^*K)^{-1}H^*$. If further, $N(A) = N(A^*)$ then from (6), $B_{12}K^*H = H$ gives $B_{12} = H(K^*H)^{-1}$ and (vii) is evident.

The next theorem gives an explicit formula for the matrix B of Theorem 2 in terms of the matrix U in (2).

Theorem 3. Let U be as in (2) and r = p - q. If U⁻¹ exists then $B = U^{-1}AU^{-1}$ is a C_2 -inverse of A with the property $N(B) = N(B^*)$. If further $N(A) = N(A^*)$ then $UBU^* = U^*BU = A^*$.

PROOF. If U^{-1} exists and r = p - q then, by Theorem 1, M^{-1} exists. This being the case, according to Theorem 2, the block B in (3) is a C_2 -inverse of A with the property $N(B) = N(B^*)$. Further B obeys $K^*B = 0$ and BK = 0. From these last two equalities and the definition (3) of U we have BU=BA and UB=AB which imply UBU = ABA = A and hence $B = U^{-1}AU^{-1}$. We also have from UB = AB and $BU^* = BA^*$ that UBU^* $=ABA^*$; and if $N(A)=N(A^*)$ then $UBU^*=A^*$ follows from Corollary 2. Similarly from BU = BA and U*B=A*B we have U*BU=A*BA and if N(A)=N(A*) then U*BU=A*.

It is of some interest to prove Theorem 3 without recourse to the existence of M^{-1} .

ALTERNATE PROOF. If U^{-1} exists and r = p - q then $\rho(K) = r$. For if $\rho(K) < r$, then dim $N(K^*) = p - \rho(K)$ > p-r and dim $N(A) + \dim N(K^*) > p-q+p-r$ $=p \Rightarrow S \neq 0$ and hence, by Theorem 1, |U|=0. Now $U^{-1}A = I - U^{-1}KK^*$ shows that if $x \in N(A)$ then $U^{-1}KK^*x$ = x, and clearly $y \in N(K^*)$ implies $U^{-1}KK^*y = 0$. Thus given dim N(A) = p - q = r and dim $N(K^*) = p - r = q$, we have that $U^{-1}KK^*$ is idempotent of rank r and so $U^{-1}A$ is idempotent of rank q. By Corollary 1, $U^{-1}\epsilon C_1(A)$ and $U^{-1} \epsilon C_1(KK^*)$. By Lemma 4, $B = U^{-1}AU^{-1}$ is a C_2 inverse of A. From $B = (U^{-1}A)U^{-1} = (I - U^{-1}KK^*)U^{-1}$ and $U^{-1} \epsilon C_1(KK^*)$ it follows that $KK^*B = BKK^* = 0$ and hence (since $\rho(K) = \rho(K^*K) = r$) that $B^*K = BK = 0$. But dim $N(B) = p - q = r = \rho(K)$ and hence N(B) $= N(B^*)$. The remainder of the proof is as given above.

We observe from Theorem 2 that when p-q=r, every block in M^{-1} is a C_2 -inverse of an appropriate block in M (we agree that trivially a zero square matrix is its own C_2 -inverse), and that if additionally N(A) $=N(A^*)$ then M and M^{-1} are of the same form in that $B_{21} = B_{12}^*$. Furthermore we have from Theorem 3 that $U^{-1}AU^{-1} = B\epsilon C_2(A)$, $U^{-1}\epsilon C_1(A)$, as noted in the alternative proof, and $U \in C_1(B)$, which follows from BU =BA. This last set of relations among generalized inverses is a special instance of the following lemma.

LEMMA 6. Let B₁ be any C₁-inverse of A, then $B = B_1AB_1$ is a C_2 -inverse of A and any C_1 -inverse of B_1 is a C_1 -inverse of B.

PROOF. If $B_1 \epsilon C_1(A)$ then $B_1 A B_1 = B \epsilon C_2(A)$ is given by Lemma 4. Let $Q \in C_1(B_1)$ then $BQB = B_1AB_1QB_1AB_1$ $=B_1AB_1AB_1=B_1AB_1=B$ and hence $Q \in C_1(B)$.

In Theorems 2 and 3 it has been shown for r = p - qthat the existence of a K such that M^{-1} and U^{-1} exist implies the existence of a B such that B is an EPq matrix and $B \in C_2(A)$. If it is shown that such a K exists when A is an arbitrary p-square matrix of rank q, then we will have the conclusion that every square matrix possesses a C_2 -inverse which is an EP matrix. The next theorem shows this to be the case.

Let X be the first block row of M, X = (A, K) and Y the first block column of M, $Y^* = (A^*, K)$. It is clear that $\rho(X) = p$ if and only if $S^* = 0$, for $N(X^*) = S^*$. Similarly $\rho(Y) = p$ if and only if S = 0, since N(Y) = S. By Theorem 1, $\rho(X) = \rho(Y) = p$ is necessary and sufficient for M^{-1} to exist and necessary and sufficient for U^{-1} to exist. This established, we need only to have the following theorem, called to the author's

⁴ Although not needed in Theorem 1, it is a fact that the existence of M^{-1} implies both $\rho(K) = r$ and $r \ge p - q$ [2], cf. alternative proof of Theorem 3

attention by John W. Evans (Mathematical Research Branch, NIAMD, NIH) who kindly furnished the proof which follows:

THEOREM 4. Let A be a p-square matrix, $\rho(A)$ = q < p, p-q=r. Then there exists a $p \times r$ matrix K such that X = (A, K) and $Y = (A^*, K)$ have rank p.

PROOF: We first show that given any two proper subspaces T and L, it is possible to select a vector x such that $x \notin T$ and $x \notin L$. In the group theoretic context this result is well known, viz, the union of two proper subgroups of a given group cannot be that group. Let \mathscr{E} be the set of all vectors x such that either $x \in T$ or $x \in L$. There are two cases to be considered. First, either T < L or L < T and then there are certainly vectors not in \mathscr{E} . Second $T \cdot L < T$ and $T \cdot L < L$. In this case let \mathcal{L}_T be the set of all vectors x such that $x \notin T$ and $x \notin T \cdot L$ and let \mathcal{L}_L be the set of all vectors x such that $x \in L$ and $x \notin T \cdot L$. Now let $x \in \mathcal{L}_T$ and $y \in \mathcal{L}_L$. Then z = x + y is not in \mathcal{E} , since for example if

 $z \in \mathcal{I}$. Then z - x + y is not in \mathcal{E} , since for example in $z \in \mathcal{I}$ then $z - x = y \in \mathcal{I}$ which contradicts $y \in \mathcal{L}_L$. Let a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_p be the columns of A and $\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_p$ the columns of A^* . Define $T_0 = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_p\}$ to be the subspace spanned by the a_i , $1 \le i \le p$, and when appropriate vectors k_1, k_2, \ldots , k_j have been selected define $T_j = \{a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_p, k_1, \ldots, a_p$ k_2, \ldots, k_i , $1 \le i \le r$, to be subspaces spanned by the vectors $a_1, \ldots, a_p, k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_j$. Similarly define $L_0 = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_p\}$ and $L_j = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \ldots, \alpha_p, k_1, k_2, \ldots, k_j\}$, $1 \le j \le r$. Select a vector k_1 such that $k_1 \notin T_0$ and $k_1 \notin L_0$; select k_2 such that $k_2 \notin T_1$ and $k_2 \notin L_1$;

continue this process up to the selection of k_r such that $k_r \notin T_{r-1}$ and $k_r \notin L_{r-1}$. Now this selection process is always possible, for clearly dim $T_o = \dim L_0 = q$ and at each stage of the process dim $T_j = \dim L_j = q + j$ < p for $0 \le j \le r-1$. Assuming the above selection process completed, then dim $T_r = \dim L_r = p$ and $\rho(X) = \rho(Y) = p$ as asserted.

The following observation is due to A. J. Goldman (National Bureau of Standards): Since the proof of Theorem 4 nowhere makes use of the assumption that the α_i are the columns of A^* , we have in fact proved that if A and C are p-square matrices of rank q < pand r = p - q, then there exists a $p \times r$ matrix K such

that [A, K] and [C, k] have rank p.

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